

# Normality of Meromorphic Functions and Uniformly Discrete Exceptional Sets

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**Abstract** Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $h(\not\equiv 0)$  be a function holomorphic on  $D$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a family of meromorphic functions in  $D$ , all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least  $k + 3$ . Suppose that the sets  $\{E_f\}_{f \in \mathcal{F}}$  are locally uniformly discrete in  $D$ , where  $E_f = \{z \in D : f(z) = 0\} \cup \{z \in D : f^{(k)}(z) = h(z)\}$ . Suppose additionally that at the common zeros of  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $h$ , the multiplicities  $m_f$  for  $f$  and  $m_h$  for  $h$  satisfy  $m_f \geq m_h + k + 1$  for  $k > 1$  and  $m_f \geq 2m_h + 3$  for  $k = 1$ . Then,  $\mathcal{F}$  is normal in  $D$ . The number  $k + 3$  can be replaced by  $k + 2$  if the set  $E_f$  is independent of  $f$ , or in other words, for each pair of functions  $f$  and  $g$  in  $\mathcal{F}$ ,  $f$  and  $g$  share the value 0, and  $f^{(k)}$  and  $g^{(k)}$  share the function  $h$ . Examples are also given to show that the conditions are necessary and sharp.

**Keywords** Meromorphic function · Normal family · Shared values · Locally uniformly discrete sets

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## 1 Introduction and Main Results

A family  $\mathcal{F}$  of meromorphic functions defined in a plane domain  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$  is said to be normal in  $D$ , if each sequence  $\{f_n\} \subset \mathcal{F}$  contains a subsequence which converges spherically locally uniformly in  $D$  to a meromorphic function or  $\infty$ . See [6, 11, 15].

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The Gu's normality criterion [5] which was conjectured by Hayman [6] says that a family  $\mathcal{F}$  of functions meromorphic on  $D$  is normal if  $f \neq 0$  and  $f^{(k)} \neq 1$  for each  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ . The following generalization of Gu's theorem was proved by Yang [14].

**Theorem 1** *Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a family of meromorphic functions on  $D$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $h (\neq 0)$  be a holomorphic function on  $D$ . If for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $f \neq 0$  and  $f^{(k)} \neq h$  on  $D$ , then  $\mathcal{F}$  is normal on  $D$ .*

In recent years, following Schwick [12], many normality criteria concerning shared values or functions have been proved. We say that two functions  $f$  and  $g$  share a value or a function  $\phi$  if the two equations  $f(z) = \phi(z)$  and  $g(z) = \phi(z)$  have the same solutions (ignoring multiplicity). Here, we want to generalize the following result of Fang and Zalcman [4] by replacing the constant 1 by a function.

**Theorem 2** *Let  $k$  be a positive integer and let  $\mathcal{F}$  a family of meromorphic functions on  $D$ , all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least  $k + 2$ , such that for each pair of functions  $f$  and  $g$  in  $\mathcal{F}$ ,  $f$  and  $g$  share the value 0, and  $f^{(k)}$  and  $g^{(k)}$  share the value 1. Then, the family  $\mathcal{F}$  is normal.*

In general, the constant 1 cannot be replaced by a function. For example, the family  $\{f_n\}$ , where  $f_n(z) = nz^{k+2}$ , is not normal at 0. However, each pair of functions  $f_n$  and  $f_m$  share the value 0, and  $f_n^{(k)}$  and  $f_m^{(k)}$  share the function  $z^2$ .

So we need some additional conditions. We prove the following generalization of Theorem 2.

**Theorem 3** *Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $h (\neq 0)$  be a function holomorphic on  $D$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a family of meromorphic functions in  $D$ , all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least  $k + 2$ , such that for each pair of functions  $f$  and  $g$  in  $\mathcal{F}$ ,  $f$  and  $g$  share the value 0, and  $f^{(k)}$  and  $g^{(k)}$  share the function  $h$ . Suppose additionally that at each common zero of  $f$  and  $h$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , the multiplicities  $m_f$  for  $f$  and  $m_h$  for  $h$  satisfy  $m_f \geq m_h + k + 1$  for  $k > 1$  and  $m_f \geq 2m_h + 3$  for  $k = 1$ . Then,  $\mathcal{F}$  is normal in  $D$ .*

The above example shows that the assumption  $m_f \geq m_h + k + 1$  is necessary. The condition  $m_f \geq 2m_h + 3$  for  $k = 1$  is also necessary and sharp as showed by the following example.

*Example 1* Let  $\alpha$  be a positive integer and  $h(z) = z^\alpha$ . Let for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$f_n(z) = \frac{z^{2\alpha+2}}{(\alpha+1)[z^{\alpha+1} - 1/n]}.$$

Then,

$$f'_n(z) - h(z) = \frac{z^{3\alpha+2} - \frac{2}{n}z^{2\alpha+1}}{(z^{\alpha+1} - \frac{1}{n})^2} - z^\alpha = -\frac{\frac{1}{n^2}z^\alpha}{(z^{\alpha+1} - \frac{1}{n})^2}.$$

Thus, each pair of functions  $f_n$  and  $f_m$  share the value 0, and  $f'_n$  and  $f'_m$  share the function  $h(z)$ . However, the family  $\{f_n\}$  is not normal at 0.

Let us look at some more aspects. By fixing a function  $f_0 \in \mathcal{F}$  and letting  $E = \{z \in D : f_0(z) = 0\} \cup \{z \in D : f_0^{(k)}(z) = h(z)\}$ , the shared condition of Theorem 3 is equivalent to saying that there exists a fixed set  $E \subset D$ , which is independent of  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , such that  $f \neq 0$  and  $f^{(k)} \neq h$  on  $D \setminus E$  for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ . There are two cases for the set  $E$ . One which is trivial is that  $E = D$ . Then, every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  satisfies  $f \equiv 0$  or  $f^{(k)} \equiv h$ , and hence the normality of  $\mathcal{F}$  can be easily dealt with. The non-trivial case is that the exceptional set  $E$  is (locally) discrete in  $D$ . We focus on the non-trivial case and consider here that the exceptional set  $E$  is dependent on  $f$ . To state our result, we require the following definition.

**Definition 1** The sets  $\{E_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  are said to be locally uniformly discrete in  $D$ , if for each point  $z_0 \in D$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that every  $E_\lambda$  has at most one point lying in the disk  $\Delta(z_0, \delta) = \{z : |z - z_0| < \delta\}$ .

For example, the sets  $\{E_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ , where  $E_n = \{\frac{m-1}{m} + \frac{1}{n} : m \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , are locally uniformly discrete in the unit disk  $\Delta(0, 1)$ , but not in the domains that contain the point 1.

**Theorem 4** Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $h (\neq 0)$  be a function holomorphic on  $D$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a family of meromorphic functions in  $D$ , all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least  $k + 2$  or  $k + 3$  and  $h$  has simple zeros. Suppose that the sets  $\{E_f\}_{f \in \mathcal{F}}$ , where  $E_f = \{z \in D : f(z) = 0\} \cup \{z \in D : f^{(k)}(z) = h(z)\}$ , are locally uniformly discrete in  $D$ . Suppose additionally that at the common zeros of  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $h$ , the multiplicities  $m_f$  for  $f$  and  $m_h$  for  $h$  satisfy  $m_f \geq m_h + k + 1$  for  $k > 1$  and  $m_f \geq 2m_h + 3$  for  $k = 1$ . Then,  $\mathcal{F}$  is normal in  $D$ .

The following example shows that it is necessary (and sharp) to assume that the multiplicity of zeros of  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  is at least  $k + 3$  when  $h$  has simple zeros.

*Example 2* Let  $h(z) = z$  and

$$f_n(z) = \frac{(z - 1/n)^{k+2}}{(k+1)![z - (k+2)/n]}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then,  $E_{f_n} = \{1/n\}$ , so that  $\{E_{f_n}\}$  are locally uniformly discrete in  $\mathbb{C}$ . In fact, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f_n(z) &= \frac{\left[(z - \frac{k+2}{n}) + \frac{k+1}{n}\right]^{k+2}}{(k+1)!(z - \frac{k+2}{n})} = \frac{1}{(k+1)!} \left[ \left(z - \frac{k+2}{n}\right)^{k+1} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{n} \left(z - \frac{k+2}{n}\right)^k + P(z) + \frac{\left(\frac{k+1}{n}\right)^{k+2}}{\left(z - \frac{k+2}{n}\right)} \right], \end{aligned}$$

where  $P$  is a polynomial of degree  $< k$ , so that

$$f_n^{(k)}(z) = z + \frac{(-1)^k \left(\frac{k+1}{n}\right)^{k+2}}{(k+1)\left(z - \frac{k+2}{n}\right)^{k+1}} \neq h(z).$$

However,  $\{f_n\}$  is not normal at 0, as  $f_n(1/n) = 0$  while  $f_n((k+2)/n) = \infty$ . Throughout in this paper, we denote by  $\mathbb{C}$  the complex plane, by  $\mathbb{C}^*$  the punctured complex plane  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ , by  $\Delta(z_0, r)$  the open disk  $\{z : |z - z_0| < r\}$ , and by  $\Delta^\circ(z_0, r)$  the punctured disk  $\Delta(z_0, r) \setminus \{z_0\} = \{z : 0 < |z - z_0| < r\}$ , where  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $r > 0$ .

## 2 Auxiliary Results

To prove our results, we require some preliminary results.

**Lemma 5** [3] *Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a family of meromorphic functions in a domain  $D$ , all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least  $k$ . Then, if  $\mathcal{F}$  is not normal at  $z_0$ , there exist, for each  $-1 < \alpha < k$ , points  $z_n \in D$  with  $z_n \rightarrow z_0$ , functions  $f_n \in \mathcal{F}$  and positive numbers  $\rho_n \rightarrow 0$  such that  $g_n(\xi) := \rho_n^{-\alpha} f_n(z_n + \rho_n \xi)$  converges locally uniformly with respect to the spherical metric in  $\mathbb{C}$  to a non-constant meromorphic function  $g$  of finite order, all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least  $k$ .*

The original form ( $\alpha = 0$ ) of this rescaling lemma is due to Zalcman [16], while the case  $-1 < \alpha < 1$  was proved by Pang [8, 9]. The present form is due to Chen and Gu [3]. This lemma also holds for  $\alpha = k$  [10] under an additional condition.

**Lemma 6** [6, 7] *Let  $k$  be a positive integer,  $f$  be a transcendental meromorphic function and  $P(\not\equiv 0)$  be a polynomial. Then, either  $f$  or  $f^{(k)} - P$  has infinitely many zeros. If  $f$  is a non-constant rational function, then either  $f$  or  $f^{(k)} - 1$  has at least one zero.*

**Lemma 7** [13] *Let  $k$  be a positive integer and let  $f$  be a non-constant rational function such that  $f^{(k)} \neq 1$  on  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then, either  $f$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $k$  or  $f(z) = z^k/k! + P_k(z) + a(z-b)^{-n}$ , where  $a(\neq 0)$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  are constants, and  $P_k$  is a polynomial of degree less than  $k$ . Furthermore,  $f$  has a zero whose multiplicity is at most  $k+1$ .*

**Lemma 8** [2, Lemma 4] *Let  $k$  be a positive integer and  $f$  be a non-constant rational function. If  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $f^{(k)} - 1$  has at least  $k+1$  distinct zeros on  $\mathbb{C}$ .*

**Lemma 9** *Let  $k$  be a positive integer and  $f$  be a non-constant rational function. If  $f(z)[f^{(k)}(z) - 1] \neq 0$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z_0\}$ , where  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $z_0$  is a zero of  $f$  with multiplicity at most  $k+1$ .*

*Proof* We claim that  $f(z_0) = 0$ . For otherwise, we would have  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  by the condition, and hence, by Lemma 8,  $f^{(k)} - 1$  has at least  $k+1 \geq 2$  distinct zeros, which contradicts that  $f^{(k)}(z) \neq 1$  for  $z \neq z_0$ .

We now assume that the zero  $z_0$  of  $f$  has multiplicity at least  $k+2$ . Then,  $f^{(k)}(z_0) = 0$ . Hence by the condition, we have  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z_0\}$ , and  $f^{(k)}(z) \neq 1$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ . Thus by Lemma 7,  $f$  has a zero whose multiplicity is at most  $k+1$ . Since  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z_0\}$ , this zero coincides with  $z_0$ , which contradicts the assumption that the zero  $z_0$  of  $f$  has multiplicity at least  $k+2$ .

Thus,  $z_0$  is a zero of  $f$  with multiplicity at most  $k+1$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 10** *Let  $k, m$  be positive integers and  $f$  be a non-constant rational function. If  $f^{(k)}(z) \neq z^m$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  and if  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_0$ , where  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $m = 1$ ,  $z_0 \neq 0$  and either  $f(z) = (z - z_0)^{k+1}/(k+1)!$  or*

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{(k+1)!} \cdot \frac{(z - z_0)^{k+2}}{z - (k+2)z_0}.$$

*Proof* Consider first the case that  $f$  is a non-constant polynomial. Then by  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_0$ ,  $f(z) = C_1(z - z_0)^l$  for some constant  $C_1 \neq 0$  and  $l \in \mathbb{N}$ ; and by  $f^{(k)}(z) \neq z^m$ ,  $f^{(k)}(z) = z^m + C_2$  for some constant  $C_2 \neq 0$ . Thus,  $C_1[(z - z_0)^l]^{(k)} = z^m + C_2$ . It can be easily seen that  $z_0 \neq 0$ ,  $m = 1$ ,  $l = k + 1$  and  $C_1 = 1/(k+1)!$ . Hence  $f(z) = (z - z_0)^{k+1}/(k+1)!$ .

Now we assume that  $f$  is a non-polynomial rational function. By  $f^{(k)}(z) \neq z^m$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , we have

$$\left[ f(z) - \frac{m!}{(m+k)!} z^{m+k} + \frac{1}{k!} z^k \right]^{(k)} = f^{(k)}(z) - z^m + 1 \neq 1.$$

Thus by Lemma 7,

$$f(z) = \frac{m!}{(m+k)!} z^{m+k} + P_k(z) + \frac{a}{(z-b)^n}, \quad (1)$$

where  $P_k, a, b, n$  are stated as in Lemma 7. Since  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_0$ , we also get  $f(z) = C(z - z_0)^l(z - b)^{-n}$ , for some constant  $C \neq 0$  and integer  $l \geq 0$ . This, combined with (1), yields that

$$\left[ \frac{m!}{(m+k)!} z^{m+k} + P_k(z) \right] (z-b)^n = C(z - z_0)^l - a. \quad (2)$$

Comparing the degree and the coefficient of the leading term of (2) yields that  $l = m + k + n$  and  $C = \frac{m!}{(m+k)!}$ . Further, since each zero of the right hand side of (2) is simple, we see that  $n = 1$ . Thus,  $l = m + k + 1$  and we can deduce from (2) that

$$\left[ \frac{m!}{(m+k)!} z^{m+k} + P_k(z) \right] (z-b) = \frac{m!}{(m+k)!} (z - z_0)^{m+k+1} - a. \quad (3)$$

Now by comparing the coefficients of the term  $z^{m+k}$ , we get  $b = (m + k + 1)z_0$ .

We claim that  $z_0 \neq 0$ . In fact, if  $z_0 = 0$ , then  $b = 0$ , and hence  $a = 0$  by taking  $z = 0$  in (3). This is a contradiction.

Next by comparing the coefficients of the term  $z^{m+k-1}$ , we see that  $m = 1$ . Thus,  $f$  has the second desired form.  $\square$

**Lemma 11** *Let  $k, m$  be positive integers and  $f$  be a rational function. If  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , and  $f^{(k)}(z) \neq z^m$  for  $z \neq z_0$ , where  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $f$  is a constant.*

*Proof* If  $f$  is a polynomial, then by  $f(z) \neq 0$ ,  $f$  must be constant. Now suppose that  $f$  is a non-polynomial rational function. Then by Lemma 10,  $f^{(k)}(z) - z^m$  must have at least one zero. Hence by the condition,  $f^{(k)}(z_0) = z_0^m$ . Thus by  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $f^{(k)}(z) \neq z^m$  for  $z \neq z_0$ , we can write

$$f(z) = C_1 \prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{-p_i}, \quad f^{(k)}(z) = z^m + C_2(z - z_0)^l \prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{-p_i - k}, \quad (4)$$

where  $C_1, C_2$  are non-zero constants,  $l, n, p_i$  are positive integers, and  $z_i, 0 \leq i \leq n$  are distinct complex numbers. By the expression of  $f$  in (4), we have

$$f^{(k)}(z) = P(z) \prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{-p_i - k}, \quad (5)$$

where  $P$  is polynomial of degree  $(n-1)k$ . Thus by the two expressions of  $f^{(k)}$  in (4) and (5),

$$z^m \prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{p_i + k} + C_2(z - z_0)^l = P(z). \quad (6)$$

Since

$$\deg(P) = (n-1)k < m + \sum_{i=1}^n (p_i + k) = \deg\left(z^m \prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{p_i + k}\right),$$

by (6), we have

$$l = m + \sum_{i=1}^n (p_i + k) = m + kn + \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \quad (7)$$

and  $C_2 = -1$ . By letting  $z = 1/t$  in (6), we get

$$\prod_{i=1}^n (1 - z_i t)^{p_i + k} = (1 - z_0 t)^l + t^l P(1/t) = (1 - z_0 t)^l \left[ 1 + O(t^{m+k+\sum_{i=1}^n p_i}) \right] \quad (8)$$

as  $t$  goes to 0. Thus by taking the logarithmic derivatives,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(p_i + k)z_i}{1 - z_i t} - \frac{l z_0}{1 - z_0 t} = O(t^{m+k-1+\sum_{i=1}^n p_i}). \quad (9)$$

It follows that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (p_i + k) z_i^j - l z_0^j = 0 \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq m + k - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^n p_i. \quad (10)$$

Since  $m + k - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \geq n + 1$ , it follows that the system of linear equations

$$\sum_{i=0}^n z_i^j x_i = 0, \quad 1 \leq j \leq n + 1 \quad (11)$$

has a non-zero solution  $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n) = (-l, p_1 + k, \dots, p_n + k)$ . This is impossible, as all  $z_i$  are distinct.  $\square$

**Lemma 12** *Let  $k, m$  be positive integers, and let  $f$  be a non-constant rational function. If  $f(z)[f^{(k)}(z) - z^m] \neq 0$  for  $z \neq 0$ , and the multiplicity is at least  $m + k + 1$  when 0 is a zero of  $f$ , then  $k = 1$  and 0 is a zero of  $f$  with exact multiplicity  $2m + 2$ .*

*Proof* First, we show that  $f$  cannot be a polynomial. Suppose not, then by  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq 0$ ,  $f(z) = Cz^s$  for some constant  $C \neq 0$  and integer  $s \in \mathbb{N}$ . Further, by the condition,  $s \geq m + k + 1$ . Thus,  $f^{(k)}(z) - z^m = Az^{s-k} - z^m = Az^m(z^{s-k-m} - 1/A)$ , where  $A \neq 0$  is a constant. This contradicts that  $f^{(k)}(z) - z^m \neq 0$  for  $z \neq 0$ .

Thus,  $f$  is a non-polynomial rational function. By Lemma 11,  $f$  has at least one zero, and hence by  $f(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq 0$ , we must have  $f(0) = 0$ . Thus, we can write

$$f(z) = C_1 z^l \prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{-p_i}, \quad (12)$$

where  $C_1 \neq 0$  is constant,  $z_i \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$  are distinct and non-zero, and  $n, l, p_i \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $l \geq m + k + 1$  (by the condition). Thus, 0 is a zero of  $f^{(k)}$  with multiplicity  $l - k \geq m + 1$ , and hence 0 is a zero of  $f^{(k)}(z) - z^m$  with exact multiplicity  $m$ . Hence, since  $f^{(k)}(z) - z^m \neq 0$  for  $z \neq 0$ , we have

$$f^{(k)}(z) = z^m + C_2 z^m \prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{-p_i - k}, \quad (13)$$

for some constant  $C_2 \neq 0$ . However, by (12), one can obtain by induction that

$$f^{(k)}(z) = C_1 z^{l-k} P(z) \prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{-p_i - k}, \quad (14)$$

where

$$P(z) = \prod_{j=0}^{k-1} \left( l - j - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \right) z^{nk} + \dots (\neq 0) \quad (15)$$

is a polynomial of degree at most  $nk$ . Thus by the two expressions of  $f^{(k)}$  in (13) and (14),

$$z^m \prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{p_i+k} + C_2 z^m = C_1 z^{l-k} P(z),$$

and hence

$$\prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i)^{p_i+k} = -C_2 + C_1 z^{l-k-m} P(z). \quad (16)$$

Then, comparing the degrees of the both sides of (16) shows that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (p_i + k) = l - k - m + \deg(P). \quad (17)$$

Since  $\deg(P) \leq nk$ , it follows from (17) that  $l \geq m + k + \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Thus by (15),  $\deg(P) = nk$  and then by (17),

$$l = m + k + \sum_{i=1}^n p_i. \quad (18)$$

By (16), we also have

$$C_2 = - \prod_{i=1}^n (-z_i)^{p_i+k}. \quad (19)$$

Now by taking the logarithmic derivatives of (16), we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{p_i + k}{z - z_i} = O(z^{l-k-m-1}) \text{ as } z \rightarrow 0. \quad (20)$$

Thus,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{p_i + k}{(z_i)^j} = 0 \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq l - k - m - 1. \quad (21)$$

It follows that the system of linear equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{(z_i)^j} = 0, \quad 1 \leq j \leq l - k - m - 1 \quad (22)$$



has a non-zero solution  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (p_1 + k, \dots, p_n + k)$ . Since  $z_i$  are non-zero and distinct, we get  $l - k - m - 1 < n$ , and hence by (18),  $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i < n + 1$ . It follows that all  $p_i = 1$ . Thus,  $l = m + k + n$  and by (21),

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{(z_i)^j} = 0, \quad j = 1, \dots, n-1. \quad (23)$$

It follows from the well-known Newton's formula that  $\prod_{i=1}^n (z - z_i) = z^n - r$ , where  $r \neq 0$  is a constant. Hence by (19)

$$C_2 = -\prod_{i=1}^n (-z_i)^{p_i+k} = -(-r)^{k+1}. \quad (24)$$

Thus by (12) and (13),

$$f(z) = C_1 z^{k+m+n} (z^n - r)^{-1} = C_1 z^{k+m} (1 - rz^{-n})^{-1}, \quad (25)$$

$$\begin{aligned} f^{(k)}(z) &= z^m - (-r)^{k+1} z^m (z^n - r)^{-k-1} \\ &= z^m \left[ 1 - (-rz^{-n})^{k+1} (1 - rz^{-n})^{-k-1} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

By (25), we have

$$f(z) = C_1 z^{k+m} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} (rz^{-n})^s = C_1 \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} r^s z^{k+m-sn}$$

for  $z$  satisfying  $|rz^{-n}| < 1$ , and hence

$$\begin{aligned} f^{(k)}(z) &= C_1 \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} r^s \prod_{j=1}^k (j + m - sn) z^{m-sn} \\ &= C_1 z^m \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \prod_{j=1}^k (j + m - sn) (rz^{-n})^s. \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

Thus by (26) and (27) with writing  $w = rz^{-n}$ ,

$$1 - (-w)^{k+1} (1 - w)^{-k-1} = C_1 \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \prod_{j=1}^k (j + m - sn) w^s \quad \text{for } |w| < 1. \quad (28)$$

Now comparing the coefficients of (28) yields that  $\prod_{j=1}^k (j + m - sn) = 0$  for  $1 \leq s \leq k$ . Thus,  $sn - m \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$  for each  $1 \leq s \leq k$ . In particular,  $1 \leq n - m \leq k$  and  $1 \leq kn - m \leq k$ . It follows that  $k = 1$  and  $n = m + 1$ , and hence 0 is a zero of  $f$  with exact multiplicity  $l = m + k + n = 2m + 2$ .  $\square$

### 3 Proof of Theorem 4

Let  $z_0 \in D$  be a point and  $\{f_n\} \subset \mathcal{F}$  be a sequence. We have to prove that  $\{f_n\}$  has a subsequence which is normal at  $z_0$ . We may assume that  $z_0 = 0$ . Since  $\{E_{f_n}\}$  are locally uniformly discrete in  $D$ , there exists  $\delta_0 > 0$  such that  $E_{f_n} \cap \Delta(0, \delta_0)$  contains at most one point  $z_{f_n}$ . That is to say, we have  $f_n \neq 0$  and  $f_n^{(k)} \neq h$  on  $\Delta(0, \delta_0) \setminus \{z_{f_n}\}$  for all  $f_n$ . The following considerations for  $\{f_n\}$  are understood to always hold with respect to the disk  $\Delta(0, \delta_0)$ .

**Case 1** There exists  $0 < \delta < \delta_0$  such that  $|z_{f_n}| \geq \delta$  for all  $f_n$  (with  $n$  sufficiently large). Then, we have  $f_n \neq 0$  and  $f_n^{(k)} \neq h$  on  $\Delta(0, \delta)$  for all  $f_n$ . Thus by Theorem 1,  $\{f_n\}$  is normal on  $\Delta(0, \delta)$ , and hence at  $z_0 = 0$ .

**Case 2** There exists a subsequence of  $\{z_{f_n}\}$ , which we continue to call  $\{z_{f_n}\}$ , such that  $z_{f_n} \rightarrow z_0 = 0$ . Then by Theorem 1,  $\{f_n\}$  is normal on  $\Delta^\circ(0, \delta_0)$ .

Suppose that  $\{f_n\}$  has no subsequence which is normal at 0. Next we consider two cases according to whether  $h(0)$  is 0 or not.

**Case 3** For the case  $h(0) \neq 0$ , we may say that  $h(0) = 1$ . Since  $\{f_n\}$  is not normal at 0, by Lemma 5, there exist a subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$  which we continue to call  $\{f_n\}$ , a sequence of points  $z_n \rightarrow 0$  and a sequence of positive numbers  $\rho_n \rightarrow 0$  such that

$$g_n(\zeta) := \rho_n^{-k} f_n(z_n + \rho_n \zeta) \rightarrow g(\zeta) \quad (29)$$

spherically locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C}$ , where  $g$  is non-constant and meromorphic on  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Claim 1**  $g^{(k)}(\zeta) \not\equiv 1$ . In fact, if  $g^{(k)}(\zeta) \equiv 1$ , then  $g$  is a polynomial with exact degree  $k$ , so that  $g$  has a zero  $\zeta_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  with multiplicity at most  $k$ , and hence by applying Hurwitz's theorem to (29),  $g_n$  (for sufficiently large  $n$ ) has a zero  $\zeta_n \rightarrow \zeta_0$  with multiplicity at most  $k$ . It follows that  $f_n$  has a zero  $z_n + \rho_n \zeta_n \rightarrow 0$  with multiplicity at most  $k$ . This contradicts the assumption that all zeros of  $f_n$  have multiplicity at least  $k + 2$ .

**Claim 2**  $g$  has at most one zero, and if it has, then the multiplicity is at least  $k + 2$ .

The latter assertion follows from an argument similar to that in Claim 1. We now prove the former. Suppose that  $g$  has at least two distinct zeros  $\zeta_1, \zeta_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then by applying Hurwitz's theorem to (29),  $g_n$  (for sufficiently large  $n$ ) has two distinct zeros  $\zeta_n^{(1)}, \zeta_n^{(2)}$  tending to  $\zeta_1, \zeta_2$  respectively, and hence  $f_n$  has two distinct zeros  $z_n + \rho_n \zeta_n^{(1)}$  and  $z_n + \rho_n \zeta_n^{(2)}$ , both tending to 0. This contradicts that  $f_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ .

**Claim 3**  $g^{(k)} - 1$  has at most one zero.

By Claim 1 and the fact that

$$f_n^{(k)}(z_n + \rho_n \zeta) - h(z_n + \rho_n \zeta) = g_n^{(k)}(\zeta) - h(z_n + \rho_n \zeta) \rightarrow g^{(k)}(\zeta) - 1 (\neq 0) \quad (30)$$

locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus g^{-1}(\infty)$ , an argument similar to that in Claim 2 yields this claim.

**Claim 4** Either  $g \neq 0$  or  $g^{(k)} \neq 1$ .

Suppose not, say  $g(\zeta_0^{(1)}) = 0$  and  $g^{(k)}(\zeta_0^{(2)}) = 1$ . Since  $\zeta_0^{(1)}$  is a zero of  $g$  with multiplicity  $\geq k + 2$ , we have  $g^{(k)}(\zeta_0^{(1)}) = 0$ , and hence  $\zeta_0^{(1)} \neq \zeta_0^{(2)}$ . By applying Hurwitz's theorem to (29) and (30), there exist points  $\zeta_n^{(i)} \rightarrow \zeta_0^{(i)}$  such that  $g_n(\zeta_n^{(1)}) = 0$  and  $g_n^{(k)}(\zeta_n^{(2)}) - h(z_n + \rho_n \zeta_n^{(2)}) = 0$ , and hence  $f_n(z_n + \rho_n \zeta_n^{(1)}) = 0$  and  $f_n^{(k)}(z_n + \rho_n \zeta_n^{(2)}) - h(z_n + \rho_n \zeta_n^{(2)}) = 0$ . Since  $f_n(z) \neq 0$  and  $f_n^{(k)}(z) \neq h(z)$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , it follows that  $z_n + \rho_n \zeta_n^{(1)} = z_n + \rho_n \zeta_n^{(2)} (= z_{f_n})$  so that  $\zeta_n^{(1)} = \zeta_n^{(2)}$ , and hence  $\zeta_0^{(1)} = \zeta_0^{(2)}$ . This is a contradiction.

Thus by Claims 2–4,  $g(g^{(k)} - 1)$  has at most one zero, and hence by Lemma 6,  $g$  is a rational function. Further by Lemma 9,  $g$  has a zero with multiplicity at most  $k + 1$ . This contradicts Claim 2 which says that the zero of  $g$  has multiplicity at least  $k + 2$ .

**Case 4** Next we consider the case that  $h(0) = 0$ . Then  $h(z) = z^m \phi(z)$ , where  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\phi$  is holomorphic with  $\phi(0) \neq 0$ . We can say  $\phi \neq 0$  in  $\Delta(0, \delta_0)$  with the normalization  $\phi(0) = 1$ . Set for each  $n$

$$F_n(z) = z^{-m} f_n(z). \quad (31)$$

Then  $F_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , since  $f_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ .

We first show that  $\{F_n\}$  has no subsequence which is normal at 0. Suppose not, say  $\{F_n\}$  is normal at 0. Then  $\{F_n\}$  has a subsequence, which we continue to call  $\{F_n\}$ , such that  $\{F_n\}$  converges spherically locally uniformly to  $\psi$  which may be  $\infty$  identically in some neighborhood  $\Delta(0, \eta_0)$ .

If  $\psi(0) \neq \infty$ , then for sufficiently large  $n$ ,  $f_n(z) \neq \infty$  and  $|F_n(z)| \leq M$  in some closed domain  $\overline{\Delta}(0, \eta)$  with  $\eta < \eta_0$ , where  $M > 0$  is a constant. It follows that the functions  $f_n$  are holomorphic and satisfy  $|f_n(z)| \leq M|z|^m$  on  $\overline{\Delta}(0, \eta)$ . By the Montel's theorem,  $\{f_n\}$  is normal at 0, which contradicts our assumption that  $\{f_n\}$  is not normal at 0.

If  $\psi(0) = \infty$ , then for sufficiently large  $n$ ,  $|F_n(z)| > 1$  in some closed domain  $\overline{\Delta}(0, \eta)$  with  $\eta < \eta_0$ . We claim that  $f_n(z_{f_n}) \neq 0$  for all (sufficiently large)  $n$ . In fact, if  $f_n(z_{f_n}) = 0$ , then as  $F_n(z_{f_n}) \neq 0$ , we see that  $z_{f_n} = 0$ , and so by the assumption on the multiplicities of common zeros of  $f_n$  and  $h$ ,  $z_{f_n} = 0$  is a zero of  $f_n$  with multiplicity at least  $m + k + 1 > m$ , and hence  $F_n(0) = 0$ , which contradicts that  $|F_n(z)| > 1$ . Thus,  $f_n(z_{f_n}) \neq 0$ . This, combined with the fact that  $f_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , shows that the functions  $1/f_n$  are holomorphic. By  $|F_n(z)| > 1$ , we have  $|1/f_n(z)| < |z|^{-m}$  on  $\overline{\Delta}(0, \eta)$ . Now the maximum modulus principle implies that  $|1/f_n(z)| \leq \eta^{-m}$  on  $\overline{\Delta}(0, \eta)$  and hence  $\{1/f_n\}$  is normal at 0 by Montel's theorem. This again contradicts our assumption that  $\{f_n\}$  is not normal at 0.

Thus,  $\{F_n\}$  has no subsequence which is normal at 0.

**Claim 5** If  $z_{f_n}$  is a zero of  $F_n$ , then the multiplicity is at least  $k + 1$ , or  $k + 2$  if  $z_{f_n} \neq 0$ . In fact, suppose  $F_n(z_{f_n}) = 0$ , then  $f_n(z_{f_n}) = 0$ . Thus for the case  $z_{f_n} \neq 0$ , the claim is true by the assumption on the multiplicities of the zeros of  $f_n$ , while for the case  $z_{f_n} = 0$ ,  $z_{f_n} = 0$  is a common zero of  $f_n$  and  $h$ , and hence by the assumption on the multiplicities of the common zeros of  $f_n$  and  $h$ , 0 is a zero of  $f_n$  with multiplicity at least  $k + m + 1$ , and then the claim follows.

Thus by Claim 5 and the fact that  $F_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , Lemma 5 can be applied, and so there exist a subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$ , which we continue to call  $\{f_n\}$ , a sequence of points  $w_n \rightarrow 0$  and a sequence of positive numbers  $\eta_n \rightarrow 0$  such that

$$\widehat{g}_n(\zeta) := \eta_n^{-k} F_n(w_n + \eta_n \zeta) = \eta_n^{-k} (w_n + \eta_n \zeta)^{-m} f_n(w_n + \eta_n \zeta) \rightarrow \widehat{g}(\zeta) \quad (32)$$

spherically locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C}$ , where  $\widehat{g}$  is non-constant and meromorphic on  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Claim 6**  $\widehat{g}$  has at most one zero.

In fact, if  $\widehat{g}$  has two distinct zeros  $\zeta_1, \zeta_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ , then applying Hurwitz's theorem to (32), there exist points  $\zeta_{i,n} \rightarrow \zeta_i$  such that  $\widehat{g}_n(\zeta_{i,n}) = 0$  and hence  $F_n(w_n + \eta_n \zeta_{i,n}) = 0$ . Since  $F_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , we get  $w_n + \eta_n \zeta_{1,n} = w_n + \eta_n \zeta_{2,n} (= z_{f_n})$ . It follows that  $\zeta_{1,n} = \zeta_{2,n}$ , and hence  $\zeta_1 = \zeta_2$ . This is a contradiction.

Next we consider two subcases according to whether the sequence  $\{w_n/\eta_n\}$  is bounded or unbounded.

**Case 5** First assume that the sequence  $\{w_n/\eta_n\}$  is unbounded. Then, there exists a subsequence, which we continue to call  $\{w_n/\eta_n\}$ , such that  $w_n/\eta_n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Claim 7** If  $\widehat{g}$  has a zero, then the multiplicity is at least  $k + 2$ . And hence,  $\widehat{g}^{(k)} \neq 1$ .

In fact, if  $\widehat{g}(\zeta_0) = 0$ , then as above, there exist points  $\zeta_n \rightarrow \zeta_0$  such that  $F_n(w_n + \eta_n \zeta_n) = 0$ , and hence  $z_{f_n} = w_n + \eta_n \zeta_n$ . As  $w_n/\eta_n \rightarrow \infty$ , we see that  $z_{f_n} \neq 0$ , and hence by Claim 5,  $z_{f_n}$  is a zero of  $F_n$  with multiplicity at least  $k + 2$ . Thus,  $\zeta_n$  is a zero of  $\widehat{g}_n$  with multiplicity at least  $k + 2$ . The claim then follows.

**Claim 8**  $\widehat{g}^{(k)} - 1$  has at most one zero.

This follows from a similar argument as above with the following fact that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f_n^{(k)}(w_n + \eta_n \zeta)}{h(w_n + \eta_n \zeta)} &= \frac{[(\eta_n)^{-k} f_n(w_n + \eta_n \zeta)]^{(k)}}{h(w_n + \eta_n \zeta)} = \frac{[(w_n + \eta_n \zeta)^m \widehat{g}_n(\zeta)]^{(k)}}{h(w_n + \eta_n \zeta)} \\ &= \frac{\left[\left(\zeta + \frac{w_n}{\eta_n}\right)^m \widehat{g}_n(\zeta)\right]^{(k)}}{\left(\zeta + \frac{w_n}{\eta_n}\right)^m \phi(w_n + \eta_n \zeta)} = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} \left[\left(\zeta + \frac{w_n}{\eta_n}\right)^m\right]^{(k-i)} \widehat{g}_n^{(i)}(\zeta)}{\left(\zeta + \frac{w_n}{\eta_n}\right)^m \phi(w_n + \eta_n \zeta)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\phi(w_n + \eta_n \zeta)} \sum_{i=0}^k \frac{C_i \widehat{g}_n^{(i)}(\zeta)}{\left(\zeta + \frac{w_n}{\eta_n}\right)^{k-i}} \rightarrow \widehat{g}^{(k)}(\zeta) \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \widehat{g}^{-1}(\infty)$ , where  $C_i = m(m-1) \cdots (m-(k-i)+1) \binom{k}{i}$  are constants, and in particular,  $C_k = 1$ .

**Claim 9** Either  $\widehat{g} \neq 0$  or  $\widehat{g}^{(k)} \neq 1$ .

Combined with the fact that  $F_n(z) \neq 0$  and  $f_n^{(k)}(z) \neq h(z)$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , this can be shown by an argument similar to the proof of Claim 4 by applying Hurwitz's theorem to (32) and (33).

However, as in Case 2.1, the above Claims 6–9 lead to a contradiction.

**Case 6** Now we consider the case that  $\{w_n/\eta_n\}$  is bounded. Then, there is a subsequence, which we continue to call  $\{w_n/\eta_n\}$ , such that  $w_n/\eta_n \rightarrow \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ . It follows from (32) that

$$\frac{f_n(\eta_n \zeta)}{\eta_n^{k+m} \zeta^m} = \widehat{g}_n \left( \zeta - \frac{w_n}{\eta_n} \right) \rightarrow \widehat{g}(\zeta - \alpha) \quad (34)$$

spherically locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C}$ , and hence

$$G_n(\zeta) := \frac{f_n(\eta_n \zeta)}{\eta_n^{k+m}} = \zeta^m \cdot \frac{f_n(\eta_n \zeta)}{\eta_n^{k+m} \zeta^m} \rightarrow G(\zeta) := \zeta^m \widehat{g}(\zeta - \alpha) \quad (35)$$

spherically locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ , or on  $\mathbb{C}$  if  $\widehat{g}(-\alpha) \neq \infty$ . Obviously,  $G$  is meromorphic on  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $G \neq 0$ .

**Claim 10**  $G$  is non-constant. Suppose not. Then,  $\widehat{g}(\zeta - \alpha) = A\zeta^{-m}$  for some non-zero constant  $A$ . Thus by (34), we see that

$$G_n(\zeta) := \frac{f_n(\eta_n \zeta)}{\eta_n^{k+m}} \rightarrow A \quad (36)$$

locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C}$ . Hence  $G_n^{(k)}(\zeta) \rightarrow 0$ , so that

$$\eta_n^{-m} [f_n^{(k)}(\eta_n \zeta) - h(\eta_n \zeta)] = G_n^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m \phi(\eta_n \zeta) \rightarrow -\zeta^m \quad (37)$$

locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C}$ . Thus by applying Hurwitz's theorem to (37), there exist exactly  $m$  points  $\zeta_n^{(j)} \rightarrow 0$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , such that  $f_n^{(k)}(\eta_n \zeta_n^{(j)}) = h(\eta_n \zeta_n^{(j)})$ . It follows from  $f_n^{(k)}(z) \neq h(z)$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$  that  $z_{f_n} = \eta_n \zeta_n^{(j)}$  for all  $j$ . This shows that the  $m$  points  $\zeta_n^{(j)}$  are coincide with  $\zeta_n := z_{f_n}/\eta_n$ , and  $z_{f_n}$  is a zero of  $f_n^{(k)}(z) - h(z)$  with multiplicity  $m$ , and by (36),  $f_n(z_{f_n}) \neq 0$ . Thus,  $f_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \in \Delta(0, \delta_0)$ .

Since  $\{f_n\}$  is normal on  $\Delta^\circ(0, \delta_0)$ , but not normal at 0, it follows from  $f_n \neq 0$  on  $\Delta(0, \delta_0)$  that there exists a subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$ , which we continue to call  $\{f_n\}$ , such that  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  and hence  $f_n^{(k)} \rightarrow 0$  locally uniformly on  $\Delta^\circ(0, \delta_0)$ .

Thus by the argument principle, we see that

$$n\left(\frac{\delta_0}{2}, f_n^{(k)} - h\right) - n\left(\frac{\delta_0}{2}, \frac{1}{f_n^{(k)} - h}\right) \rightarrow n\left(\frac{\delta_0}{2}, h\right) - n\left(\frac{\delta_0}{2}, \frac{1}{h}\right) = -m, \quad (38)$$

where  $n(r, f)$  is the number of poles of  $f$  in  $\Delta(0, r)$ , and  $n(r, 1/f)$  is the number of zeros of  $f$  in  $\Delta(0, r)$ . Since both hand sides of (38) are integers, we see that for sufficiently large  $n$ ,

$$n\left(\frac{\delta_0}{2}, f_n^{(k)} - h\right) = n\left(\frac{\delta_0}{2}, \frac{1}{f_n^{(k)} - h}\right) - m = 0. \quad (39)$$

It follows from (39) that  $f_n$  are holomorphic on  $\Delta(0, \delta_0/2)$ . Hence by  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  locally uniformly on  $\Delta^\circ(0, \delta_0)$ , we get  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  locally uniformly on  $\Delta(0, \delta_0)$ . This contradicts that  $\{f_n\}$  is not normal at 0.

**Claim 11**  $G$  has at most one zero on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ , or on  $\mathbb{C}$  if  $\widehat{g}(-\alpha) \neq \infty$ .

This can be proved by applying Hurwitz's theorem to (35) with the fact that  $f_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ .

**Claim 12** If  $G$  has a zero on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ , then  $z_{f_n} \neq 0$  and the multiplicity of the zero of  $G$  on  $\mathbb{C}^*$  is at least  $k+2$ , or  $k+3$  if  $m=1$ .

Suppose that  $\zeta_0 \in \mathbb{C}^*$  is a zero of  $G$ . Then by applying Hurwitz's theorem to (35),  $G_n$  has a zero  $\zeta_n \rightarrow \zeta_0$ . Since  $\zeta_0 \neq 0$ ,  $\zeta_n \neq 0$  (for  $n$  large enough). It follows that  $\eta_n \zeta_n \rightarrow 0$  is a non-zero zero of  $f_n$ . Since  $f_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , we see that  $z_{f_n} = \eta_n \zeta_n \neq 0$ . Hence by the assumption,  $z_{f_n}$  is a zero of  $f_n$  with multiplicity at least  $k+2$ , or  $k+3$  if  $m=1$ . It follows that the multiplicity of the zero  $\zeta_0$  of  $G$  is at least  $k+2$ , or  $k+3$  if  $m=1$ .

**Claim 13** If  $G(0) = 0$ , then  $f_n(0) = 0$  and hence  $z_{f_n} = 0$  (for sufficiently large  $n$ ).

For otherwise, say  $f_n(0) \neq 0$ . Then by (34), 0 is a pole of  $\widehat{g}_n(\zeta - w_n/\eta_n)$  with multiplicity at least  $m$ , and hence is a pole of  $\widehat{g}(\zeta - \alpha)$  with multiplicity at least  $m$ . This shows that 0 is not a zero of  $G(\zeta) = \zeta^m \widehat{g}(\zeta - \alpha)$ , which is a contradiction.

By Claims 12 and 13, we see that if  $G(0) = 0$ , then  $G(\zeta) \neq 0$  for  $\zeta \in \mathbb{C}^*$ . Hence by Claim 11,  $G$  has at most one zero on  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Claim 14** If 0 is a zero of  $G$ , then the multiplicity is at least  $m+k+1$  for  $k > 1$  and  $2m+3$  for  $k=1$ .

In fact, if 0 is a zero of  $G$ , then Claim 13 shows that 0 is a common zero of  $f_n$  and  $h$ . Let  $m_{f_n}$  be the multiplicity of 0 as a zero of  $f_n$ . Then by the assumption,  $m_{f_n} \geq m+k+1$  for  $k > 1$  and  $m_{f_n} \geq 2m+3$  for  $k=1$ . It follows from (34) that  $-w_n/\eta_n$  is a zero of  $\widehat{g}_n$  with multiplicity  $m_{f_n} - m$ , so that  $-\alpha$  is a zero of  $\widehat{g}$  with multiplicity at least  $k+1$  for  $k > 1$  and  $m+3$  for  $k=1$ . The assertion then follows.

Now by (35), we have

$$\eta_n^{-m} [f_n^{(k)}(\eta_n \zeta) - h(\eta_n \zeta)] = G_n^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m \phi(\eta_n \zeta) \rightarrow G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m \quad (40)$$

locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C}^* \setminus G^{-1}(\infty)$ , or on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus G^{-1}(\infty)$  if  $\widehat{g}(-\alpha) \neq \infty$ .

**Claim 15**  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) \not\equiv \zeta^m$ .

For otherwise,  $G(\zeta) = c\zeta^{m+k} + P(\zeta)$  for some constant  $c \neq 0$  and polynomial  $P$  of degree at most  $k-1$ . Thus,  $G$  has at least one zero in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let  $\zeta_0$  be a zero of  $G$ , then by the fact that  $\zeta_0$  has multiplicity  $> k$ , we get  $G^{(k)}(\zeta_0) = 0$  and hence  $\zeta_0 = 0$  by  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) \equiv \zeta^m$ . It follows that  $G(\zeta) = c'\zeta^l$  for some  $c' \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $l \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus,  $c\zeta^{m+k} + P(\zeta) = c'\zeta^l$ . By comparing the degrees and coefficients, we see that  $P \equiv 0$ . Thus,  $G(\zeta) = c\zeta^{m+k}$ . This contradicts Claim 14 which says that the multiplicity is at least  $m+k+1$  if 0 is a zero of  $G$ .

**Claim 16**  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m$  has at most one zero on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ , or on  $\mathbb{C}$  if  $\widehat{g}(-\alpha) \neq \infty$ .

By Claim 15, this claim can be seen by applying Hurwitz's theorem to (40) with the condition  $f_n^{(k)}(z) \neq h(z)$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ .

By Claims 10, 11 and 16, it follows from Lemma 6 that  $G$  is a non-constant rational function.

**Claim 17** If  $G^{(k)}(0) = 0$ , then  $G \neq 0$  on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .

Suppose that  $G(\zeta_0) = 0$  for some  $\zeta_0 \neq 0$ . Then  $G$  is holomorphic at 0. Since we have proved before Claim 14 that  $G$  has at most one zero on  $\mathbb{C}$ , we get  $G(0) \neq 0$ . Thus by  $G(0) \neq 0, \infty$ , it follows from  $G(\zeta) = \zeta^m \widehat{g}(\zeta - \alpha)$  that  $\widehat{g}(-\alpha) = \infty$  and that 0 is a pole of  $\widehat{g}(\zeta - \alpha)$  with exact multiplicity  $m$ . Thus by (34), there exists a positive number  $\delta$  such that  $f_n(\eta_n \zeta) \neq \infty$  for  $|\zeta| \leq \delta$  (and  $n$  large enough), and hence  $G_n(\zeta)$  is holomorphic on  $|\zeta| \leq \delta$ . Thus, on  $|\zeta| \leq \delta$ , the convergence of (40) is uniformly, and then Hurwitz's theorem can be applied to (40). Since  $G^{(k)}(0) = 0^m$  and  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) \neq \zeta^m$  by Claim 15, there exist points  $\zeta_n \rightarrow 0$  such that  $G_n^{(k)}(\zeta_n) = \zeta_n^m \phi(\eta_n \zeta_n)$  so that  $f_n^{(k)}(\eta_n \zeta_n) = h(\eta_n \zeta_n)$ . Hence, by  $f_n^{(k)}(z) \neq h(z)$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , we get  $z_{f_n} = \eta_n \zeta_n$ . On the other hand, since  $G(\zeta_0) = 0$ , applying Hurwitz's theorem to (35) yields that there exist points  $\zeta'_n \rightarrow \zeta_0$  such that  $G_n(\zeta'_n) = 0$  so that  $f_n(\eta_n \zeta'_n) = 0$ . Thus by  $f_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , we get  $z_{f_n} = \eta_n \zeta'_n$ . Hence  $\eta_n \zeta_n = \eta_n \zeta'_n (= z_{f_n})$  and then  $\zeta'_n = \zeta_n$ . It follows that  $\zeta_0 = 0$ , which is a contradiction.

**Claim 18** If  $G^{(k)}(0) = 0$ , then  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m \neq 0$  on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .

Suppose that  $G^{(k)}(\zeta_0) = \zeta_0^m$  for some  $\zeta_0 \neq 0$ . Then  $G$  is holomorphic at 0. If  $G(0) = 0$ , then by Claim 14,  $\widehat{g}(-\alpha) = 0$ , and hence by Claim 16,  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m$  has at most one zero on  $\mathbb{C}$ . This contradicts that  $G^{(k)}(0) = 0^m$  and  $G^{(k)}(\zeta_0) = \zeta_0^m$ . Thus,  $G(0) \neq 0$ . Now by an argument similar to that in the proof of Claim 17, there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that on  $|\zeta| \leq \delta$ , the convergence of (40) is uniformly, and then Hurwitz's theorem can be applied to (40). It follows from  $G^{(k)}(0) = 0^m$  that there exist points  $\zeta_n \rightarrow 0$  such that  $G_n^{(k)}(\zeta_n) = \zeta_n^m \phi(\eta_n \zeta_n)$  so that  $f_n^{(k)}(\eta_n \zeta_n) = h(\eta_n \zeta_n)$ . Thus by  $f_n^{(k)}(z) = h(z)$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , we get  $z_{f_n} = \eta_n \zeta_n$ . On the other hand, since  $G^{(k)}(\zeta_0) = \zeta_0^m$  with  $\zeta_0 \neq 0$ , by applying Hurwitz's theorem to (40), there exist points  $\zeta'_n \rightarrow \zeta_0$  such that  $G_n^{(k)}(\zeta'_n) = (\zeta'_n)^m \phi(\eta_n \zeta'_n)$  so that  $f_n^{(k)}(\eta_n \zeta'_n) = h(\eta_n \zeta'_n)$ . Again by  $f_n^{(k)}(z) = h(z)$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , we get  $z_{f_n} = \eta_n \zeta'_n$ . Thus  $\eta_n \zeta_n = \eta_n \zeta'_n (= z_{f_n})$  and then  $\zeta'_n = \zeta_n$ . It follows that  $\zeta_0 = 0$ , which is a contradiction.

Thus by Claims 16 and 18,  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m$  has at most one zero on  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Claim 19** At least one of  $G$  and  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m$  has no zero on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .

Suppose that  $G(\zeta_0^{(1)}) = 0$  and  $G^{(k)}(\zeta_0^{(2)}) = (\zeta_0^{(2)})^m$  for some  $\zeta_0^{(1)}, \zeta_0^{(2)} \in \mathbb{C}^*$ . By Claim 12,  $\zeta_0^{(1)}$  is a zero of  $G$  with multiplicity  $\geq k + 2$ , and hence  $G^{(k)}(\zeta_0^{(1)}) = 0$ . It follows that  $\zeta_0^{(1)} \neq \zeta_0^{(2)}$ . Applying Hurwitz's theorem to (35) shows that there exist points  $\zeta_n^{(1)} \rightarrow \zeta_0^{(1)}$  such that  $G_n(\zeta_n^{(1)}) = 0$ . Thus  $f_n(\eta_n \zeta_n^{(1)}) = 0$ , and hence by  $f_n(z) \neq 0$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , we get  $z_{f_n} = \eta_n \zeta_n^{(1)}$ . Applying Hurwitz's theorem to (40) shows that there exist points  $\zeta_n^{(2)} \rightarrow \zeta_0^{(2)}$  such that  $f_n^{(k)}(\eta_n \zeta_n^{(2)}) = h(\eta_n \zeta_n^{(2)})$ , and hence by  $f_n^{(k)}(z) \neq h(z)$  for  $z \neq z_{f_n}$ , we get  $z_{f_n} = \eta_n \zeta_n^{(2)}$ . Thus  $\zeta_n^{(1)} = \zeta_n^{(2)}$  and hence  $\zeta_0^{(1)} = \zeta_0^{(2)}$ . This contradicts that  $\zeta_0^{(1)} \neq \zeta_0^{(2)}$ .

Now, according to Claim 19, we are in one of the following three cases. Note that we have proved before Claim 17 that  $G$  is a non-constant rational function.

**Case 7** Neither of  $G$  and  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m$  has a zero on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .

Then by Lemma 11,  $G$  has at least one zero on  $\mathbb{C}$ , and hence  $G(0) = 0$ . It now follows from Claim 14 and Lemma 12 that Case A cannot occur.

**Case 8**  $G(\zeta_0) = 0$  for some  $\zeta_0 \in \mathbb{C}^*$  and  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m$  has no zero on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .

Then  $G(\zeta) \neq 0$  for  $\zeta \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{\zeta_0\}$ , since we have proved before Claim 14 that  $G$  has at most one zero on  $\mathbb{C}$ . Also, by Claim 17, we have  $G^{(k)}(0) \neq 0$ , and hence  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) \neq \zeta^m$  for  $\zeta \in \mathbb{C}$ . It now follows from Claim 12 and Lemma 10 that Case B cannot occur.

**Case 9**  $G^{(k)}(\zeta_0) = \zeta_0^m$  for some  $\zeta_0 \in \mathbb{C}^*$  and  $G(\zeta)$  has no zero on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ .

Then  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) \neq \zeta^m$  for  $\zeta \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{\zeta_0\}$ , since we have proved before Claim 19 that  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m$  has at most one zero on  $\mathbb{C}$ . Hence by Lemma 11,  $G$  has at least one zero on  $\mathbb{C}$ , so that we must have  $G(0) = 0$ . It now follows from Claim 14 that  $G^{(k)}(0) = 0$ , which contradicts that  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) \neq \zeta^m$  for  $\zeta \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{\zeta_0\}$ .

The proof of Theorem 4 is completed.

#### 4 Proof of Theorem 3

From the proof of Theorem 4, we have the following result, which shows that the multiplicity  $k+3$  in Theorem 4 can be replaced by  $k+2$  when the set  $E_f$  is independent of  $f$ . Note that the assumption that multiplicity  $\geq k+3$  in Theorem 4 is only used to rule out the Case B within the proof of Theorem 4.

**Theorem 13** Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $h(\neq 0)$  be a function holomorphic on  $D$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a family of meromorphic functions in  $D$ , all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least  $k+2$ . Suppose that there exists a point  $z_0 \in D$  such that on  $D \setminus \{z_0\}$ ,  $f \neq 0$  and  $f^{(k)} \neq h$  for all functions  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ . Suppose additionally that if  $z_0$  is a common zero of  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $h$ , the multiplicities  $m_f$  for  $f$  and  $m_h$  for  $h$  satisfy  $m_f \geq m_h + k + 1$  for  $k > 1$  and  $m_f \geq 2m_h + 3$  for  $k = 1$ . Then  $\mathcal{F}$  is normal in  $D$ .

*Proof* The proof is similar to, and more simple than, the proof of Theorem 4, since in this case, we only have to consider the case that  $z_{f_n} = 0$  for all  $n$  in the proof of Theorem 4. In fact, since  $z_{f_n} = 0$ , we see from Claim 12 that  $G$  has no zeros on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ , and a similar argument by applying Hurwitz's theorem to (40) can be used to show that  $G^{(k)}(\zeta) - \zeta^m$  has no zeros on  $\mathbb{C}^*$ . So only the Case A appears and is required to be ruled out.  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 3* Let  $z_0 \in D$  and a sequence  $\{f_n\} \subset \mathcal{F}$ . We have to prove that  $\{f_n\}$  is normal at  $z_0$ .

Suppose first that there exists a neighborhood  $U_0$  of  $z_0$  such that on  $U_0 \setminus \{z_0\}$ ,  $f_1 \neq 0$  and  $f_1^{(k)} \neq h$ . Then by the condition, on  $U_0 \setminus \{z_0\}$ ,  $f_n \neq 0$  and  $f_n^{(k)} \neq h$  for all functions  $f_n$ . Hence, by Theorem 13,  $\{f_n\}$  is normal in  $U_0$  and hence normal at  $z_0$ .

The other case is that there exists a sequence  $z_n \rightarrow z_0$ ,  $z_n \neq z_0$  such that either  $f_1(z_n) = 0$  or  $f_1^{(k)}(z_n) = h(z_n)$ . It follows that either  $f_1(z) \equiv 0$  or  $f_1^{(k)}(z) \equiv h(z)$ . Thus by the condition, either  $f_n(z) \equiv 0$  or  $f_n^{(k)}(z) \equiv h(z)$  for all  $n$ .



It is obviously that  $\{f_n\}$  is normal if  $f_n(z) \equiv 0$ . Thus, we consider the case that  $f_n^{(k)}(z) \equiv h(z)$ . If  $\{f_n\}$  is not normal at  $z_0$ , then by Lemma 5, there exists points  $z_n \rightarrow z_0$ , positive numbers  $\rho_n \rightarrow 0$  and functions  $f_n \in \{f_n\}$  such that  $g_n(\zeta) = f_n(z_n + \rho_n \zeta) \rightarrow g(\zeta)$  locally uniformly on  $\mathbb{C}$ , where  $g$  is a non-constant meromorphic function, all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least  $k + 2$ . Since  $g_n^{(k)}(\zeta) = \rho_n^k f_n^{(k)}(z_n + \rho_n \zeta) = \rho_n^k h(z_n + \rho_n \zeta) \rightarrow 0$ , we get  $g^{(k)}(\zeta) \equiv 0$ . Since all zeros of  $g$  have multiplicity at least  $k + 2$ , it follows that  $g$  is a constant, which is a contradiction.

Thus,  $\{f_n\}$  is normal at  $z_0$ . Theorem 3 is proved.

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